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DECEMBER MEETING.

THE stated meeting was held on Thursday, the 8th instant at three o'clock, P.M., Mr. RHODES in the chair. The record of the last meeting was read and approved.

The Librarian reported the gift of the papers and archives of the Class of 1852 of Harvard College, from Mrs. Grace Williamson Edes, of Cambridge, who received them as residuary legatee of the papers of Dr. Henry K. Oliver, to whom they were sent on the death of the last acting class secretary Dr. David W. Cheever, including an impression in wax of the seal of the class.

From Mr. Frederick J. Ranlett, of Boston, the Commission given by the Congress of the Colony of New Hampshire to Robert Boody, as captain of the Seventh Company in the Tenth Regiment of Militia, dated at Exeter, September 5, 1775.

The Cabinet-Keeper reported the following gifts:

From Henry H. Edes, a daguerreotype of Col. Henry Purkett (1755-1846), who was said to have been a member of the Boston Tea Party and who served in the Revolutionary War.

From Charles P. Greenough, a number of engravings of English celebrities.

From Frank H. Shumway, a bronze relief of Lincoln, and a lithograph of the Adelphian Academy, North Bridgewater, by J. H. Bufford.

From John Foster Benyon, a lithograph by N. Currier, New York, 1845, of the "Washington's Reception by the Ladies, on passing the Bridge at Trenton, N. J., April, 1789, on his way to New York to be inaugurated First President of the United States."

From the *New Bedford Standard*, the medal awarded by the *Standard* to pupils in the New Bedford Public Schools for excellence in English.

From William L. Willey, the medal of the Newburyport semi-centennial.

From Harold E. Gillingham, of Philadelphia, the World War medal of the Pennsylvania National Guard, 28th Regiment.

From Carleton S. Gifford, the French Yser medal.

The Corresponding Secretary reported the receipt of a letter from Robert Lincoln O'Brien accepting his election as a Resident Member of the Society.

Charles Allerton Coolidge, of Boston, was elected a Resident Member of the Society.

George Peabody Gooch, of London, England, was elected a Corresponding Member of the Society.

Captain THOMAS G. FROTHINGHAM spoke on

THE EFFECT OF THE EFFORT
OF THE UNITED STATES UPON THE WORLD WAR

Anyone, attempting to estimate the influence of the United States upon the World War, should first of all realize that America became a part of a military situation which differed from any that had gone before. In the history of the strategy of the war, the United States will be given its place as providing a reinforcement against a contained enemy at a well defined crisis. For this reason, in any true narrative of the war, the effort of America must be described as a separate strategic factor. That our nation's service should stand out in this way does not imply undue praise, nor any comparison with the continued efforts of the Entente Allies.

The military preparations of Germany had developed so great a strength that for four years the war remained a desperate struggle, with each of the great nations of the Entente suffering the constant strain of maintaining the contest. The year 1917 ended with Russia in military collapse, and the Italian armies so shattered that they had become a drain upon Great Britain and France, at a time when the British and French armies had been woefully depleted by the losses on the Western front.

It was true that the Central Powers had failed to win their expected decision through unrestricted submarine warfare, but the beginning of 1918 found them enabled to concentrate the full German strength upon the Western front, without any danger of a diversion elsewhere, as Russia had been put out of the war and the shattered Italians could not undertake an early offensive. The resultant freedom to move troops from the East gave the Germans an actual superiority in numbers,¹ as the British and French resources in man-

¹ "Numerically we had never been so strong in comparison with our enemies." — Ludendorff.

power had been drained in the costly and unsuccessful battles of 1917, to such an extent that it had become a hard task to fill the ranks of the British and French armies. Consequently there was no hope of an increase to offset the German reinforcements from the East.¹

Possessing this assured superiority,² the Germans were able to plan their great offensive of 1918 without any danger of counter attacks. Ludendorff had become the controlling power in the German General Staff. His strategy was a return to the direct methods of concentration of forces against a chosen point of attack, and new tactics had been devised by which many divisions were grouped against the chosen point, insuring successive streams of troops which infiltrated the enemy's positions and dislocated the defenders.

These new tactics were surprisingly effective against the Allies, and at the beginning of July, 1918, this formidable German offensive, in a series of overwhelming attacks, had so smashed and dislocated the Allied armies, even after they had at last been united under the command of Foch, that it is difficult to see how the situation could have been saved except by a strong reinforcement for the Allies — and this could only be furnished by the American troops.

To define this critical military situation explicitly, it is only necessary to quote the following statement of the Versailles Conference, June 12, 1918:

General Foch has presented to us a statement of the utmost gravity . . . as there is no possibility of the British and French increasing the numbers of their divisions . . . there is a great danger of the war being lost unless the numerical inferiority of the Allies can be remedied as rapidly as possible by the advent of American troops. . . . We are satisfied that General Foch . . . is not overestimating the needs of the case. . . .

D. LLOYD GEORGE.
CLEMENCEAU.
ORLANDO.

¹ "Allied resources in man-power at home were low and there was little prospect of increasing their armed strength." — General Pershing.

² "When on March 21, 1918, the German army on the Western front began its series of offensives, it was by far the most formidable force the world has ever seen." — General Pershing.

Probably never before in history has a crisis been put on official record in such unmistakable terms — and by such unquestioned authority. It is a matter for solemn thanksgiving that the United States was able to provide the reinforcement needed at this emergency of July, 1918, when, as the German Chancellor Hertling expressed it, "The history of the world was played out in three days."

There is no longer any question of the fact that the German Headquarters made their calculation that it was utterly out of the question for the United States to exert any physical force upon the war.¹ The German leaders had on occasions yielded to keep us out of the war, to avoid having our resources at the service of the Allies, but the Germans applied their own formulas to our nation, and, following these, it was held a military impossibility for an adequate American army to appear upon the fighting front. It must also be said that this was the prevailing opinion among European military experts of all countries² — and from the European point of view a military impossibility was accomplished when our troops performed their part in the war.

Our strategic problem was an operation against a contained enemy — with the great advantage for us of freedom from danger of being attacked. But it was complicated by the condition that transportation overseas, which would normally have been provided by Allied shipping, had been impaired by the submarines to so great an extent that we were compelled to provide a large share of the transportation ourselves. The submarine menace, and its diversion of Allied naval forces, also made it imperative for us to provide a great proportion of the necessary naval protection. There was the added urgent necessity of haste — or the war would be lost.³

¹ "Would she appear in time to snatch the victor's laurels from our brows? That, and that only, was the decisive question! I believed that I could answer it in the negative." — Hindenburg.

² "Joffre in an interview with the Secretary of War in May, 1917, said that 400,000 would be our limit, and that one French port would be sufficient to receive them." — Admiral Gleaves, *History of the Cruiser and Transport Force*.

³ "The Allies are very weak and we must come to their aid this year, 1918. The year after may be too late." — General Pershing.

This crisis demanded an effort on the part of the United States that would comprise: raising and training an army; transporting a great part of that army overseas; providing supplies and transporting them overseas; giving naval protection; providing terminals and bases overseas to receive and handle the troops and supplies. All this must be done in haste, and at the outset on the vast scale set by the unprecedented demands of the World War. There was no time for the gradual development of forces, as in the case of other nations.

No nation in history ever faced such a task, and all this was accomplished by the surge of our people, united in belief in our unselfish duty in the war — a force moral as well as physical that brought about cleavage between the German Government and the German people,¹ which became a strong factor in breaking down the German militaristic structure. Our moral force² sowed the seeds of German revolt against the German Government — and America's unexpected physical strength for war turned German victory into German defeat.³

In tracing the course of the war, the failure is self-evident of the most perfected military machine in all history — and the continued inability of the Allies to progress beyond piecemeal methods is equally apparent. The wonder of the war has been the fact that the peaceful United States proved to be the one nation that coordinated the functions of its military, naval, and industrial forces, to accomplish its full strategic objective, in the time set by a crisis and on the enormous scale demanded by the World War.

To study the causes that brought about this result will be most interesting in connection with the War. Our effort will be recognized as one of the great uprisings, which have shown the world that human forces united by some powerful fusing impulse are stronger than artificial military conditions. To find a comparison, with the exception of our Civil War,

¹ "By working upon our democratic sentiments the enemy propaganda succeeded in bringing our government into discredit in Germany." — Ludendorff.

² "For American soldiers the war became as it were a crusade against us." — Ludendorff.

³ "America thus became the decisive power in the war." — Ludendorff.

it will be necessary to go to the great movements of the northern races which overran Europe. France, after the Revolution, has always been considered unique as an example of a united uprising of humanity finding in Napoleon an ideal leader. Yet, with all the years of enthusiasm for the Emperor, it was only the military and industrial forces that reached full strength. Napoleon was never able to vitalize the naval arm.

It should be bluntly stated that, in every military sense, we were unprepared, and this retarded everything at the start. For a time it looked as if European prophecies as to our helplessness in war would prove true. Then from delays and confusion emerged the miracle, the army and navy forces of the United States. It is true that all kinds of mistakes were made, but behind our operation was a strong impelling force that had not been measured since the Civil War.

As has been said, the Civil War is the only basis for comparison. In that war our nation had shown that Americans, when aroused by an appeal, instinctively developed strategy, tactics, and weapons far in advance of their time. Students of the Civil War believed that the qualities shown in that epoch-making war were still innate in our people, but European experts had never appreciated the lessons of 1865 until the World War had confirmed them, and there was even doubt in America as to whether the same fibre remained in our nation augmented by immigration.

But, at the great summons, it was shown that the same spirit was vital in the United States. We had even advanced, as a result of the American habit of mind in thinking in terms of great masses in all our industries. This made it instinctive for Americans to solve our war problems by means of the same methods, of assembling the great plants first and then their products, in men and in material, on a large scale. These American methods insured the success of our effort on land and sea.

That our nation was fused into united effort was at once self evident. There was no "first one hundred thousand." Our prompt adoption of conscription was an immediate nation-wide appeal to each community of the American people. The same was true of our loans, our food supply,

and our industries. Thus only was it possible to coordinate our Army, our Navy, and our industries. This great compelling force swept away the mistakes of individuals. The results were so amazing that we must never again doubt the united strength of America. In the words of Lloyd George, "Her coming was like an avalanche. The world has never seen anything like it."

Mr. FRANCIS R. HART made some remarks upon two original documents which he presented to the Society. The documents follow:

WHITEHAL. October the 26th 1708

MY LORD. — Her Majesty having been pleased to refer to Us the inclosed Extract of a Letter from the Earl of Galway, to your Lordship (relating to an Irish Ship therein mentioned, Trading between Rochelle and Lisbon) before we can make our Report thereupon, it will be necessary we should know whether upon the said Ship's being Cleared at the Port of Dublin Security was taken in the Custome House there as is usual in such Cases, and what the said Security is. On this Occasion we must acquaint Your Lordship that by Letters received from Colonel Park, we are informed that a Trade is carryed on from the Kingdom of Ireland to the French Islands in the West Indies, for he writes that he never sends a Flag of Truce to those parts, but there are found several Irish Ships there Laden with Beef etca. And that whilst the last Flag of Truce was at Martinico, 3 large Ships arrived there directly from Ireland with Beef, which practices ought strictly to be enquired into, that the Offenders may be punished according to Law for prevention of the like for the future. We are My Lord, Your Lordship's most humble Servants,

STAMFORD.
PH. MEADOWS.
J. PULTENEY.

Rt. Hon'ble the Earl of Sunderland.

[Memorandum] Council of Trade 26 Oct. 1708 about Irish Ships trading with France.

[EXTRACT.]

Extract of a Letter from the Earl of Galloway, Her Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary in Portugal to the Earl of Sunderland dated at Lisbon 9th August. 1708. N. S.

I must acquaint Your Lordship, that there is lately come into this Port, The *Happy*, Rich'd Knowles Master from la Rochelle laden with Barley consigned to a Factor here Mons'r L'Evesque; the Master first said he came from Dublin, but the Entry, has been made from the former Place, and he has the Queen's Pass for Bilboa, and at La Rochelle they have publish't leave to embarke Corn for Portugall which Trade, I am apt to believe they design to carry on by means of English Vessells with such Passes for better Security; As I suppose such Passes are not obtained without the Owners giving Security in England, t'will be very proper to make them answer for this Trade so much to Our prejudice.

Mr. NORCROSS exhibited a copy of *Système Nerveux*, Paris, 1824, by P. Flourens, belonging to the Bostonian Society, inscribed by Lafayette to his friend Thomas Jefferson. Mr. Norcross also presented eleven volumes from the library of the Rev. John Willcock, minister of St. Ringin's Church, Lerwick, Shetland Islands.

Mr. FORD read a paper presented to the Society by Mr. Frederick J. Ranlett being an

ADDRESS TO LAFAYETTE, 1825

General Lafayette, my feeling towards you Sir is Better felt than Discribed. I Bid you Twice Welcom to the State of Maine, for we must all under God Acknowledge you as one of the Temporal Savours of the United States of Amarica, who Japerded your life in the high Places of the field to Save a Runeing Nation, leveing your Native Country at three Thousand miles Distance, and at a Time when Distruction seemed to awate us on our Right hand and on our left to help Fight our Battles for us. but could you or I sir after the Laps of almost fifty years, even Antisapated a thought that we should lived to have seen this happy Moment to take Each other by the hand, to greet this happy Meeting, and that we might all of us hale this Morn and bid a Joyfull Welcom to this Ospicious Day,—but when we look Back, and Take a Retrospective View of 1775, and beholding the United States Involooped in Darkness, and all that we held Deer threatned to be Arrested from us, Now sir Pause for a moment, and View the Contrast,—we now sir can behold a Morning without a cloud, we see that light is sprung up out of obscurity, that Righteousness has Shined fourth as the noon Day, and that Prosperity has

crowned our Enterprise with Success, and that each one can see under his one Vine and fig Tree and none to make him afraid. but not unto us not unto us must all this Victory be ascribed, but gods arm alone has Brought salvation to us, it is that god who made the Earth by his Power, who formed the world by his Wisdom, who stretched out the heavens by his Understanding. and as it is the last Time Sir that I can ever Expect to see you, I wish you all the happiness that love can give and Sincerity enjoy.

JOHN LOW

June the 24th, 1825.

Remarks were made during the meeting by Messrs. J. C. WARREN, and G. R. AGASSIZ, a Corresponding Member.

MEMOIR

OF

BARRETT WENDELL

By ABBOTT LAWRENCE LOWELL

THE paternal ancestors of Barrett Wendell were unusually migratory for the early colonial days. The first to emigrate to America was Evert Jansen Wendel who came from Emden, in East Friesland, to New York about 1640. He soon moved to Albany where the family lived for about two generations. Evert's grandson Abraham went back to New York when a boy and spent his life there as a merchant; but he sent his eldest son John to Boston in 1714, under the care, and in due time a partner, of Abraham's youngest brother Jacob — the ancestor of Oliver Wendell Holmes and Wendell Phillips. Again the tendency to migrate from the scenes of boyhood asserted itself, for John's son, who bore his father's name, after graduating from Harvard College in 1750, went to Portsmouth where he practised law. Up to this time the line seems to have been financially prosperous, but John, perhaps because he had some twenty children, could give them little, and Jacob, his youngest surviving son, the grandfather of Barrett Wendell, had to make his own way without help. Privateering ventures in the War of 1812 gave him a start, and he then embarked in manufacturing on the Piscataqua, which promised well, but shortly proved so far beyond his resources that he was completely ruined, and retained only his house in Portsmouth. This came ultimately into the possession of Barrett Wendell to whom it was an inexhaustible pleasure during the later years of his life.

Under such conditions Jacob Wendell, Barrett's father,



MHS

Bennett Wendell.

was born and passed his boyhood. At seventeen he went to Boston, and about the time he came of age he obtained employment in the selling house of J. C. Howe & Company, in which after seven years he became a partner. This enabled him to marry Mary, daughter of Nathaniel Augustus Barrett. The Barretts had been considerable people, as is proved by a number of portraits by Copley, four of which Barrett Wendell acquired in due time to his great joy.

Jacob Wendell hired a small house in West Cedar Street and here Barrett was born on August 23, 1855. But he was not destined to grow up in Boston. The selling houses of the New England mills were setting up branches in New York and in the early summer of 1863 Jacob Wendell moved there as the representative of the firm. A quiet retiring man without the brilliance of his son, he had business capacity, sterling integrity, and commanded the confidence and respect of those who met him. Not himself a scholar, he believed in the value of scholarship, and of his own motion established a foundation for the highest scholar in the Freshman class at Harvard College. Every year when not abroad Barrett showed his deep interest in the foundation and his respect for his father's memory by giving a dinner for the last winner of the Wendell scholarship and all the former holders.

From early childhood Barrett Wendell showed characteristics that continued throughout his life. He was delicate in health, disliked physical exercise, cared nothing for outdoor games or sports, and at a very tender age amused himself by writing plays. To the nervous child New York was not attractive, and it was an interlude of delight when his parents took him abroad with them in the summer of 1868. Then he first learned the pleasure of travel, which he ever after thoroughly enjoyed, and enjoyed in the best way even when overtired, keenly appreciating natural scenery and above all the monuments of the past and works of every art.

In the autumn of 1872 he entered Harvard College, but a nervous breakdown in his Freshman year brought the advice to take a long sea voyage around Cape Horn, designed to be followed by another across the Pacific. The ship put into Rio de Janeiro for repairs, and Barrett, disgusted with the conditions on board and with the captain, took the case

into his own hands, went to Europe, travelled from the Mediterranean to the midnight sun, and returned to Harvard restored in health at the opening of the next college year.

At college he stood high in his studies, though not among those at the top of the class, for his interest was rather literary than learned, and he had no ambition for rank as such. He was strongly individual, striking out for himself instead of following the conventional track. Partly, perhaps, from delicate health, partly from his experience in travel he was more mature than his fellows. At this time also he appeared to them somewhat radical, or rather iconoclastic, in temperament. That was a period when American taste was very crude, uncongenial to people who, like himself, were familiar with the more mellow traditions of an older world; and a revolt was beginning against the tone of thought which they termed "philistine" and "chromo civilized." One outlet for his energy he found in the group of men who founded the *Lampoon*, said at the time to be the best product of student life in the University, and certainly the most original. To that publication he contributed freely while in college and the Law School.

On leaving College he entered the Law School, but took little interest in the study of law and had none of the *gaudium certaminis* which made the discussions in the class rooms exhilarating for those who took part in them. After a year he left the school and entered a lawyer's office in New York. This again he did not enjoy, and coming to Boston, into the office of Mr. George O. Shattuck, tried the examinations for the bar and failed. At that time he remarked that while all the friends whose judgment he respected thought he ought not to accept a defeat, but try again, he did not himself see why he should do so. Nor did he do it; and he was right. His friends had not appreciated capacities not fully revealed, or the success that lay before him in quite a different line.

As yet he had not found his career, but in the year 1880 two things happened which determined his future. One was his marriage to Edith Greenough, daughter of William W. Greenough of Boston, a member of this Society and the other was an invitation to teach English at Harvard. Here he

began as an instructor, being duly promoted in 1888 to the rank of Assistant Professor, and in 1898 to that of Professor, of English. His teaching had two sides, both of them notable. Complaint having been made by a committee of the Board of Overseers about the teaching of English composition, LeBaron Russell Briggs and Barrett Wendell took in hand its reorganization under the supervision of Professor Adams Sherman Hill, the veteran teacher of the subject. Wendell introduced the practice of daily themes, and in fact the methods adopted by these two young men proved so effective that in substance they have continued to the present day and have been copied all over the country. The work of reading and criticising such an enormous mass of themes involved a vast amount of drudgery, but like all good workmen he knew that anything worth doing entails drudgery. It neither appalled him, nor until he had done it many years did he seek to be relieved of it. The principles he strove to inculcate, with notable success, he embodied in a series of lectures at the Lowell Institute, published in book form under the title *English Composition*—a model of what such a book should be.

The other side of his teaching—his courses on literature—is so directly connected with his writings that it may be postponed for the moment, but a word may be said about his relation to the policy of the College, for it was characteristic. By no means in accord with many of the views then prevalent in the Faculty, especially in the matter of the standard of scholarship and discipline maintained among the undergraduates, he was critical at its meetings; but his loyalty to the College and the administration made him an active defender outside. Moreover, he was not closely in sympathy with exact philological study, and regarded the requirements in this respect for the doctorate of philosophy in English as somewhat pedantic. His interest was rather with literature in its larger human aspects. Both of these things are, no doubt, essential in a university, but both are not essential for every professor, and Barrett Wendell's view of the meaning of literature grew stronger and deeper with his reading, his teaching, his own writing and his experience in life.

His career from the age of twenty-five was twofold — that of a college teacher and that of a writer. Neither of these leads to memorable adventures, but before dealing with his intellectual work we must follow the events of this comparatively uneventful life. He used to the full all three of the great instruments of education — books, travel and conversation, that is intercourse with other men. In fact travel played a large part in his development. For a man of sedentary habits he travelled much, and his journeys, as appears in the diaries that he kept in the form of letters home, show him ardently observant, keenly interested in the fellow travellers that he met and in everything that he saw. The letters are full of criticism of men and things, living and ancient, criticism mainly directed to discovering their import for the growth of human tradition and civilization. The observations he made became an integral part of his outlook on life, of his own intellectual progress, and they colored the substance of his writings.

Before he was eighteen years old he had been twice to Europe as an intelligent traveller. After graduation he went again with his father for the summer, and a fourth time in 1880 on his wedding journey. In 1884 he was sent to Chicago on the dull mission of holding there the entrance examinations for admission to Harvard College, but while in the city he obtained a ticket to the National Democratic Convention that nominated President Cleveland, an experience which he made use of later. Two years afterwards he went to San Francisco, again to hold the examinations, and took advantage of the opportunity to see much of the Rocky Mountain region and the Pacific Coast on his way out and back. Those who did not know him well would be astonished at the ease with which this apparently self-contained man of letters made the acquaintance and learned the opinions of all sorts and conditions of people.

At this period he began to write books, the first taking the form of novels — *The Duchess Emilia* into which he wove his earlier impressions of Rome was published in 1885, and in 1887 *Rankell's Remains*, a study of the American millionaire, embodying a description of a national nominating convention. As in the case of some other distinguished men of letters his

early novels had not a large sale, and were not indeed successful, although they meant much to him. He wrote them no more and turned his pen to other subjects.

Though far from robust he was an intensely industrious worker and constantly overtaxed his strength. In one of his fragments of diary he speaks of the fatigue of his college work which left him tired out at the end of the first half year. We hear much of a better distribution of worldly goods, but a better distribution of physical strength would be far more beneficial. Some men, who do little or nothing useful, have a vitality that would be profitable to mankind in others whose energy and capacity are lodged in bodies with less endurance. Barrett Wendell frequently found himself exhausted, and on these occasions he sought refreshment in travel. He always found it, and perhaps the necessity was not an unmixed evil, not only for the pleasure he derived, but also for the impressions and reflections that he stored away. In the summer of 1888 he made such a journey with his youngest brother Jacob, visiting England, Holland, Germany and France; and again in the summer of 1891 with his friend Shubrick Clymer, when he visited and was enchanted with Provence. In 1894-95 he took advantage of the sabbatical leave of absence provided by the rules of the University, and spent the year with his family in Europe.

Meanwhile, in addition to the arduous labours of teaching at Cambridge, he had been busily writing, on topics connected with his college work and on others not related thereto. In 1891 he published two books, both notable. One was the work on *English Composition* to which reference has already been made; the other was the *Life of Cotton Mather*. The labor in compiling the materials for this was naturally great. The manuscript sources, as it happened, were largely in the possession of this Society, and there was some difference of opinion among its officers on the question whether he should be allowed to use its unpublished collections, or whether they should be reserved for the members of the Society. Fortunately, the more generous view, and the one most in accord with the true purpose of such an institution, prevailed, and he was given free access to the papers. The result was a work whose merit was at once

recognized — a biography in which he placed himself with remarkable sympathy at the point of view of this strange compound of science and superstition.

He had an impression that an author fell out of sight and lost his public if he did not produce a book every couple of years. In the case of a man who could write as he did the theory was unnecessary, but at times he acted upon it. Therefore in 1893 he published a collection of papers entitled *Stelligeri and Other Essays concerning America*. The next year appeared his *William Shakespeare, a Study in Elizabethan Literature*, a landmark in his literary career. This was followed by a period of prolonged study resulting by 1900 in the *Literary History of America*, one of the books that established his standing as a scholar and man of letters.

So far his journeys had been those of a private traveller, not a public character, but by this time his writings had given him a reputation which brought demands to lecture at distant universities. He was invited to lecture in the summer of 1901 at the University of California, and he took advantage of the chance of travel it offered by going to Alaska with his wife and with that most genial of friends, Professor H. Morse Stephens. In the following year a still more attractive request to give the Clark Lectures at the University of Cambridge induced him to take a sabbatical leave of absence already overdue, and in 1902-03 lectured both at Cambridge and Oxford, spending the rest of the winter in Egypt. At Cambridge especially, where his lectures prolonged his stay, he made warm friends with whom, as was his wont, he kept in touch in after years. The lectures there were published under the title *The Temper of the Seventeenth Century in English Literature*. About the same time he published a number of plays, written for special occasions, in a volume commonly known, from the one with which the book begins, as *Raleigh in Guiana*. This play was acted in Sanders Theatre at Harvard University, by himself and a number of his friends. In 1904 appeared another work on the *History of Literature in America* written in collaboration with his former pupil, now Professor Chester N. Greenough; and in 1906 a collection of essays entitled, *Liberty, Union and Democracy*.

Two years after the lectures at Cambridge came another foreign lectureship which proved the occasion of one of his most remarkable books. Some years before Mr. James Hazen Hyde had instituted at his own expense an annual short course of lectures at Harvard, given by a series of French men of letters, and it was proposed to reciprocate by sending a Harvard professor to lecture at the Sorbonne — a delightful custom that later ripened into an annual exchange of professors for a half year and has been maintained without a break to the present day. Barrett Wendell was selected as the first exchange professor, to lecture in 1904-05 on English and American literature and traditions. The experiment was venturesome, but he achieved a distinguished success. His lectures were open to the public, were largely attended, and attracted wide attention. He lectured not only in Paris, but also at a number of the provincial universities; and the houses of French people were opened to him and his wife with unusual hospitality. This enabled him to see the more intimate sides of French domestic life commonly unknown to foreigners. He turned his experience to good account, and after his return published in 1907 his *France of Today*, describing the real nature of life in that country. There is probably no people whose fiction gives a less true picture of their social life in its more serious and enduring aspects than the French. Their novels and plays have, therefore, given to foreigners a very false impression of that life and of the strength of family ties. They have obscured the solid virtues of the race, which the exclusiveness of the home has also tended to conceal. The French themselves have deemed Barrett Wendell's book the most accurate work on the subject, and hailed it as invaluable in portraying to other nations the true character of their people. Ambassador Jusserand later wrote of Wendell as the man who had foreseen the France of Verdun. The book was, indeed, a result of sympathetic insight, and the honorary degree conferred by the University of Strasbourg, when reopened as a French seat of learning, was a gratification as a testimony of his comprehension and love of France. The degree was conferred in the following terms:

Barrett WENDELL, professor honoraire à l'Université Harvard, écrivain, membre de l'Académie américaine des Arts et des Lettres. Le premier des conférenciers Hyde en France, en 1904-1905, il a su redécouvrir notre pays pour ses compatriotes, et dire à ceux-ci, dans un livre bien connu, ce qu'il fallait penser, en particulier, de la famille française et de notre "foyer," des Universités et du corps enseignant. Il a, dès la début d'une guerre qui n'était encore qu'européenne, proclamé où allaient les sympathies d'une âme noble, attachée à ce qu'il y a de plus élevé dans les grandes traditions de l'humanisme occidental.

Coming, as it happened, on the eve of the Great War, the book has an especial significance, and will endure forever, the best description of the social condition of France at the outbreak of a momentous struggle in the history of European civilization.

During the next two years he published two more collections of essays; *The Privileged Classes* in 1908, and *The Mystery of Education* in 1909. In 1910-11 he went round the world, making an occasion for this by visiting a married daughter living in Shanghai. Passing rapidly through Europe he sailed to Ceylon and India, and his journal shows the keenness of his observation and his pleasure. In Ceylon he had letters to native philosophers whose explanations of their religious views enabled him to contrast the deeper traditions of European and oriental thought. He gained conceptions that illuminated all he saw of the people and of the monuments of former days. In China and Japan also, having letters to men of note, he saw much and enjoyed it all intensely. As usual, he kept a diary of his journey in the form of an almost daily letter, written in this case to his son William; and therein he records his impressions not only of the places and people that he visited, but also of the fellow travellers he chanced to meet, describing them with a vividness that showed his interest in people of all kinds. He made friends with them readily, and although quick in temper to resent rudeness, he notes the event in such a case with a sense of humor at the part he had played himself. In fact, with him affection was vastly more enduring than resentment.

This was destined to be his last uninterrupted travel beyond the sea. In 1914 he went to Europe for a couple of months,

but the journey was cut short by the outbreak of the war, and he returned. In 1916 he lectured in the West and in Texas; and in 1917 he resigned his professorship to devote himself to putting into permanent form the results of his lifelong study. His conception of the meaning of European literature as a whole had expanded with the years, and the progress of his thought is best set forth by the opening words of an address on the Ideals of Empire which he gave before the American Academy of Arts and Letters on April 18, 1917:

During the past ten years my chief concern has been with the teaching of literature at Harvard College. Beginning with details of literature in England and in America, my task has gradually extended itself. We live in confused times, of which the confusion is nowhere more evident than in education. Year after year I have come to feel more deeply that students are increasingly apt to think of everything as distinct from everything else, to approach each phase of their study as if it existed only by itself. Thus I have been led to believe that in the closing years of my academic career I could do them no better service than by attempting to show how at least things literary can hardly be understood until we try to think of them together. My subject has gradually extended to a discussion of what I may call the traditions of European literature — traditions which include countless allusions to matters of what men have supposed to be history, to legend, to superstition, to religion, to the vastly various matters which compose the spiritual heritage of our European humanity.

This conception of the growth of European literary form and thought he had for some time been expounding in a general course on the subject at Harvard, and he planned to publish it in permanent form after his retirement from teaching. Unfortunately his frail health soon began to give way in a malady that proved to be pernicious anaemia. In spite of increasing weakness he struggled on, and the first volume of his *Traditions of European Literature* appeared when he was almost on his death bed. It covers the literature of Greece and Rome, with that of the Middle Ages through Dante, and it is the masterly work of a scholar wide in his knowledge, his insight and his sympathy. The world has lost much by the cutting short of his life before he reached the modern period to which he had devoted even more attention.

He died on the eighth of February, 1921, in his house, 358 Marlborough Street, which had been his winter home ever since he set up housekeeping on his marriage. When the news reached Paris a lecture room in the Sorbonne was named for him, a recognition never before, I believe, accorded to a foreigner.

As a man he had no quality more marked than his intense loyalty to his friends, and to the traditions of old New England. He made friends easily, kept up with them, and for those very near to him, and they were many, he had a singularly deep affection. That he should have combined an ardent attachment for New England with a strong cosmopolitan interest is noteworthy, for it illustrates two sides of his nature. He was of broader mould than everyone suspected. James Russell Lowell said of Wordsworth that he was two men, and that is, perhaps, peculiarly the case with men of letters. It was true of Barrett Wendell. There was the real man, and what he thought himself to be; and the former was the larger of the two. In his later years he thought of himself and was regarded by others as a somewhat narrow conservative. But the real man spoke in the more profound of his writings, especially in *The France of Today* and *The Traditions of European Literature*. His philosophy of life may be expressed in the words he wrote in his diary after hearing Parsival at Bayreuth in 1888. "The great truths of life are so great that most people forget they are more than commonplace. . . . Sometimes the evil seems bound to overcome all else; but the men we call the greatest speak forth a belief, all the more striking because, like all beliefs it cannot prove itself and demands a loyal sympathy, that what will prevail is the good." Later he says, "Somehow, no one has ever told us why, the good is best and always must be."